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WITH A

SUPPLEMENTARY CHAPTER ON WASHING.

BY

MRS. W. T. GREENUP,

Author of "Food and its Preparation," &c.

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PREFACE.

THIS little book is intended to be used as an occasional Reading-book for Girls, and at the same time as a Text-book on Clothing. For this reason it will be found that the technicalities of yards, nails, inches—seam, gusset, and band—together with "methods of teaching needlework," have been avoided. Books already in use will supply what this one lacks in *technicalities*, while the hope is cherished that this may, in its turn, fill in the *details*, and thus meet a want often expressed by teachers to the author.

The Lessons are, as far as possible, based upon practical experience; but where this has been wanting (as in the Manufacture of

Clothing) the kindly aid of friends has come to the rescue, and must here be very gratefully acknowledged.

Richmond Villas, Cambridge,
May 17*th*, 1879.

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CLOTHING.

LESSON I.

INTRODUCTION.

HOW much is included in the one word which forms the title of this little book! In order to consider the wide question of clothing, in the practical manner which its importance demands, we must look at it from many points of view. Its sources, manufacture, uses, abuses, purchase, cost, and care, must each claim our attention; while we must not forget that our clothes have to be made and mended.

Every girl should learn all she can about clothing, as it becomes an important part of her duty when grown up to womanhood, to buy, make, mend, and make the best of the clothing of the household.

It is a lamentable fact, that many become women without the slightest knowledge of this important part of woman's work. And what is the result of this ignorance? They lose many shillings in the course of a year, either through their injudicious purchases, or their want of knowing how to turn things to account so as to make them last a little longer. They and their families are slatternly and untidy, even though their means would allow them to be otherwise, if properly applied. They also incur the displeasure of those who work hard to *earn* the clothing, and thus do much to make their homes miserable.

In order to live comfortably, and be respectable on small means, good judgment and economy in clothing are next to economy and management in food. That wonderful little instrument called a needle has a great influence in our homes, and every wife, mother, and daughter should make it her duty to know how to use it competently.

Good management of clothing is to be learnt only by practical experience. It cannot be attained all at once, and the sooner girls begin to learn the better it will be for them, as it takes *much* practice to become expert at buying, making, or mending clothes.

Apart from its utility and economy, a thorough, practical knowledge of clothing and needlework will afford us much pleasure. In well-regulated families how many happy evenings are spent in needlework and pleasant conversation combined. And what a satisfaction it is to feel that we have *bought* a thing judiciously, and *made* it to look nice. Then again, the honest, pardonable pride called forth in showing, as the result of our patient labour, an old thing made to look "almost as good as new."

Man labours to *earn* money, and, by good management, woman labours to *save* it. When both thoroughly know their work, and do it, a comfortable, happy home will be their reward; for though the *earnings* may be small, the *savings* will come to the rescue and make "both ends meet."

LESSON II.

SOURCES OF CLOTHING.

TO the question "Where do we get our clothing?" many would answer "From the draper's or tailor's shop." But, although we may purchase our clothing *ready for wear* at these establishments, what thousands of miles we should have to travel in order to see it in its *original* state.

As we cannot visit all the countries which supply us with materials for clothing, the next best thing we can do is to take an *imaginary* peep into them, and thus see our cotton, woollen, linen, furs, and numerous other articles, in what is termed their raw condition. We shall then be enabled to trace them through all the various stages they must pass before we see them so temptingly displayed as articles of clothing in the windows and show-rooms of the different *tradesmen.*

Cotton.—Some kinds of cotton are grown in India, China, and Egypt, but our chief supply is derived from America, from which country we also obtain the best quality. The largest plantations, or estates upon which cotton is grown, are in South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida, the exact position of which may be easily seen on looking at a map of the United States of America.

In choosing cotton in its raw state, a manufacturer would select that grown in any of the above-named places, as being superior to all other cottons.

Cotton is the produce of a shrub growing about twenty inches high, called the "cotton plant." The plant has dark green leaves streaked with brown, and bears a pale yellow flower. Specimens of it may be seen in many of the public museums in our country, but they are in a dried state—not growing. When the flower falls, it leaves a pod, which ripens and then bursts open, exposing to view the ball of cotton, or "wool," as it is then commonly called. When quite ripe, the cotton is very carefully gathered, care being taken to chose very dry warm weather for the purpose. Then comes the "picking" of the cotton, that is, taking out the seeds which have grown with and stick to it. It is then dried in the sun, and packed in *bales* for exportation to this and other countries, where it is manufactured into all the different forms in which we buy it.

Woollen.—To the sheep in its many varieties, are we principally indebted for our warmest clothing.

The wool is cut from the sheep once a year. If it were not cut it would gradually fall off.

All the wool manufactured in this country is not English. We get very large quantities from other countries, especially from Australia, where sheep-rearing is carried on to a great extent, with a view to trade in the *wool* rather than the *flesh* of the animals. Hence the low price of meat in Australia.

Many of the Australian sheep-farms are very extensive—thousands of sheep are reared upon them, and scores of men employed in minding or washing the flocks.

A friend of the writer lived on an Australian sheep-farm or station where forty thousand sheep were reared, and this was not the largest, one some few miles distant having one hundred thousand. The washing of the sheep is a very important part of the work on these farms, as the wool fetches a much higher price if well washed than it otherwise would. If not thoroughly washed, much grease remains in the wool. After washing, much care is taken to prevent the sheep from dirtying the wool again before it is cut. Trees abound on the farm-lands, and in washing season they are stripped of their bark to the height of the sheep so as to make them white and clean, in case the sheep rub themselves against them.

The sheep are always well washed before shearing, and the wool is washed again after being cut. It is then packed into bags and sold to the woollen manufacturers, by whom it is turned into the many beautiful and durable woollen fabrics which we wear.

Linen.—Like cotton, linen is obtained from a plant. This plant bears a very pretty blue flower, and is largely cultivated in Russia, France, and Ireland, growing from three to four feet in height.

But whilst we obtain cotton from the *pod* or *fruit* of the cotton plant, we derive our linen from the *stem* of the flax plant.

The seeds which follow the pretty little flax flowers, are of great use, and are known to us as *linseed.*

Linen is not so much used for clothing as it was many years ago, before cotton had reached such perfection of manufacture. It is not so warm as cotton, and is much more expensive. If seen through a microscope, the threads in a piece of calico would be found to differ from those in a piece of linen; the former being flat and having sharp edges, while the latter are round and smooth. This is the chief reason why linen is always used for dressing wounds; the sharp edges of the cotton would irritate a wound, and thus hinder it from healing. Pieces of old linen should always be taken care of for this purpose.

Silk.—This beautiful material is the produce of a plain-looking caterpillar, which feeds on the leaves of the mulberry tree. The silkworm is hatched from a tiny egg, not larger than a pin's head. It eats very greedily of the leaves until it is full-grown. Then it begins to spin very fine threads of silk, with which it wraps itself round and round until a little ball about the size of a pigeon's egg is formed; and so it goes to sleep for some days. It then makes a hole through its self-made covering, and flies away in the form of a moth, leaving the cocoon or ball for some one else to wear (though not to sleep in), after it is manufactured.

The silkworm is a native of China, and can only be reared in warm climates. It was first brought to Europe about the year 555, and is now reared to some considerable extent in the warm southern countries, Spain, France, Greece, &c.

Furs.—These are by far the warmest materials; therefore, in our temperate climate we do not wear them so much for clothing as for ornament.

The inhabitants of very cold climates clothe themselves in furs which they obtain from the fur animals so widely distributed amongst cold, barren lands.

The most valuable fur animals are the seal, ermine, sable, lynx, Arctic fox, and chinchilla. Many articles of fur in the shape of muffs, ruffs, and trimmings, are manufactured in imitation of real furs; but are not to be compared with them either for beauty or durability.

We are indebted to the animals of various northern countries for the furs we wear, amongst them being North America and Russia.

Leather.—This forms a most important part of our clothing in the form of boots and shoes, for which it is admirably adapted both for strength and durability.

For this useful material we are again indebted to the dumb animals we so often see ill-treated and abused in our streets.

The strong part of our shoes, the soles, is made from the skin of the cow; the tops or "uppers" from that of the calf. Morocco or Turkey leather is made from the skin of the goat. The wash-leather, which we use for various household purposes, is the skin of the chamois, a kind of goat found in Switzerland.

All the leather manufactured in England is not produced by English cattle. Large quantities of hides or skins are imported from Russia and South America.

On our next page we will give a list of the countries which supply us with our clothing in its original or unmanufactured condition;

and we shall thus see in a concise form how much of the world, besides our own country, we have to thank, when we say "we are well clothed."'

MATERIALS.	COUNTRIES SUPPLYING THEM.
COTTON	United States, India, Egypt, Brazil.
WOOL	Australia, Cape Colony, Germany.
LINEN	Russia, France, Ireland.
SILK	France, China, Egypt, India, Italy.
FURS	North America, Russia.
LEATHER ...	Russia, South America.

RECAPITULATION.

HAVING traced the source of our clothing, we now see how many plants, animals, countries, and people contribute to our comfort.

We have called, in imagination, upon the inhabitants of those countries which furnish us with *cotton*. Most of the workers in the cotton fields belong to the coloured populations of these countries. We are painfully reminded how millions of them were formerly *slaves*, planting and gathering the cotton while smarting under the lash of cruel, cowardly slave-owners and overseers! How parents and children were separated and sold, never to meet again! How proud we are of dear old England, when we are able to say that she has done more than any other country in the world to suppress the horrors of slavery!

We have also seen how many countries supply us with wool. We have lingered longest in that wonderful country, Australia. Not merely because it supplies us with so much wool, but because we know it has been mostly peopled and brought up to its present state of commercial prosperity by those who have gone there from our own country. How many of us have relatives or friends who have visited Australia, or lived there for years. We cannot help feeling doubly interested in Australian wool, when we have heard all about it from friends who have had so much to do with it.

We have observed, too, how *linen* is obtained from the stem of the flax plant, and have fancied how beautiful a field of flax must look when in flower. We must remember, too, that linen is a far more ancient clothing material than cotton or wool. Thousands of years ago it was considered a mark of distinction to be "clothed in fine linen," as we gather from the earliest records of Scripture.

As we have traced the sources of *Silk*, we have thought of those shrewd and curious people, the Chinese, to whose country we are indebted for the silkworm. The Chinese used to guard the silkworms most carefully, for fear any of them should be taken to other countries.

It is said that a Chinese princess who went to join her intended husband in India, took with her, hidden in the lining of her head-dress, some mulberry seeds and silkworms' eggs, and that thus the rearing of silkworms was introduced into India. The art spread very gradually until it was introduced into Europe about the year 555.

We have almost grown cold as we have pictured to ourselves the Arctic regions, which supply us with furs. Snow, ice, sledges, bears, foxes, seals, and numerous little animals covered with fur, have all passed before our minds. Then we have pictured the strange-looking people we should have met had we really visited these countries. Many of them would be literally "muffled up to the eyes" in furs or skins.

Although our own country supplies us with a large quantity of hides, we see that England depends very largely upon Russia and South America for the hides from which leather is made.

Thus we see that our clothing comes from north, south, east, and west, and that if we had to depend solely upon our own country for all we wear, we should have to dress in much more primitive style than we do now.

LESSON III.

MANUFACTURE OF CLOTHING.

OF all the materials which supply us with clothing, none, except furs, can be worn as they are grown. Cotton or flax, when first gathered, would be of no use to us for underclothing; wool, just as cut from the sheep, could not be made into coats or dresses; and so with all the rest. Each one must undergo a thorough change before it can be made into garments fit for wear. This change is effected by *manufacture,* which is the art of converting raw materials into articles fit for use.

Our own land is famed all the world over as a manufacturing country; and, while England depends very largely upon foreign countries for raw materials, they in return look to her for the fabrics from which their clothing is made.

Travelling from north to south of England, how soon we can tell when we leave an agricultural district and enter a manufacturing one! Large factories, tall chimneys, plenty of smoke, houses closely packed together, all tell us that some manufacture is carried on there. Let us halt in the district where our chief manufacture is carried on, and try to find out how the necessary change is effected in

Cotton.—South Lancashire is the cotton district, Manchester the chief centre. Then come Bolton, Bury, Blackburn, Burnley, Oldham, Accrington, Wigan, Preston, Stockport in Cheshire, and Glossop in Derbyshire.

Most of these are large, thickly-populated towns, and in visiting them a stranger is particularly struck with the simplicity of manners, dress, and habits of the working population. But taking advantage of the kindness of a friend, we will go through his cotton mill, and see a large number of operatives at their work.

Standing at the entrance, just as it is time for the hands to return to work after dinner, we hear such a clatter of feet in the distance as might lead a stranger from the southern counties to imagine that mounted soldiers were coming to take the mill by storm. But here come the *troops of* men, boys, women, and girls. At once we discover the cause of the noise we heard, for they all wear *clogs*, which are shoes with leather tops and *thick wooden soles*. We smile at the clogs, but commend the wearers of them for the good sense they display in protecting their feet, for they must go to their work rain or fine. Clogs, too, are much cheaper than leather boots.

But our time will not allow us to take further notice of the operatives as they pass in. We are anxious to see them at their work, and so follow them into the mill. We are first taken into the *Mixing Room*, where the tightly packed bales of cotton are opened, and the various qualities arranged for each particular kind of yarn. Next comes the *Scutching Room*, where the cotton is cleaned by being put through a machine called a "cotton opener." This separates the closely pressed cotton in some degree, and as it passes over a revolving lattice work into the *scutching* machine, much of the dust is cleared from it. The cotton is left by the opener in a fleecy-looking condition, but after passing through the scutcher, where it is further separated and cleansed, it comes out in the form of a "lap," something like a roll of carpet, except that instead of carpet it is a roll of raw cotton almost like wadding. The work in this department is somewhat dangerous, and is generally performed by men.

The next room is called the *Carding Room.* Here the "lap" is placed into a "carding engine." The "cards" are made of leather, covered over with little points of iron wire very close together. By the action of this machine, a sort of combing process is performed which frees the cotton from little bits of dirt which the preceding machines could not beat out, and also lays the fibres straight. These machines are also attended to by men. Carding is the most important operation in cotton spinning.

After passing through the carding engine, the cotton is taken to the *Drawing Frame,* where it is repeatedly doubled and drawn out again so as still further to straighten the fibres and lay them side by side. The next machine is the *Stubbing Frame,* in which the cotton is drawn out much finer, twisted, and then wound upon a *bobbin.* The *Intermediate frame* draws it still finer, and then the *Roving frame* completes the preparation of the cotton for the spinning process.

All the frames in the carding room, except the carding engine, are tended by women and girls. The women will earn from fifteen to twenty-two shillings per week, and the girls (mostly from fourteen to sixteen years of age) will earn from seven to ten shillings.

The cotton now goes to the *Spinning Room*, where it is spun into threads and wound upon spindles. When wound, the cotton forms "cops," which are thick in the middle, and tapering to each end. When taken off the spindles, the cops have to be very carefully handled, or they would get squeezed out of shape; the cotton would become entangled, and so be of no use for weaving. Many cotton mills spin the cops only—so that they must be very carefully packed in skips, to be sent to the *weaving* mills. North Lancashire is the weaving district—the principal towns being Blackburn, Burnley, and Preston.

But here in the packing room we see that some of the cops are being put into casks instead of skips, and upon enquiry we find that they are to be exported to the Continent, in many parts of which weaving is carried on. The cotton wound into cops is used for weaving into calicoes, sheetings, and other materials made from cotton. The large cops we see are intended for "*warp*"—that is, the *length* of the material to be made; while the smaller ones are for *weft*, or across the material from side to side. The production of some of the spinning mills is not wound into cops, but "*hanks*." These are made up into bundles, each weighing about 10 lbs. A number of these bundles is then pressed together, made into bales, and exported to China and Japan, where they are sold over the counter for household purposes. Cotton yarn is also prepared for weaving into stockings. Spinning for this purpose is more difficult, but is very successfully carried on at Ashton-under-Lyne, Stalybridge, Cromford, and Belper.

TOWNS ENGAGED IN COTTON MANUFACTURE.	PROCESSES OF MANUFACTURE.	CLOTHING MATERIALS MANUFACTURED FROM COTTON.
Manchester.	Cleaning.	Calicoes.
Oldham.	Carding.	Prints.
Bolton.	Drawing.	Muslins.
Ashton-under-Lyne.	Spinning.	Fustians.
Preston.	Weaving.	Velveteens.
Blackburn.		Lace.
Bury.		Stockings.
Burnley.		Marcellas.
Chorley.		
Stockport.		
Hyde.		
Glossop.		
Stalybridge.		
Dukenfield.		
Lanark.		
Renfrew.		

Liverpool is the great port of the cotton trade.

Woollen.—The woollen manufacture is carried on chiefly in the West Riding of Yorkshire, with Leeds as its centre. This district is also characterised by its large factories, tall chimneys, and dense population.

On arriving at the factories, the wool is first "*sorted*," the various classes being called *primes seconds*, and *thirds*. Then it undergoes the process of *scouring*, to free it from all grease, after which it is well dried. It next passes through the *willowing* machine, which disentangles the locks of wool, while a large mechanical fan blows out the dust from them. By this time the wool has become very dry and somewhat brittle, and has to be *oiled* to enable it to pass through the machinery more easily, and without breaking too often. Then, if intended for the manufacture of woollen cloths, it is next placed in the *carding machine*, which separates the fibres of the wool, and lays them quite straight. The coarser kinds of wool, used for "worsted," are *combed* instead of *carded*.

From the carding machine the wool passes off in *slivers*, as they are called, that is, threads of wool passed through small rings, which gather them in a small compass, but do not twist them. Each set of slivers is wound off on to a reel, called a spool. Some of the slivers are so fine that 352 yards will weigh only one ounce. This fact gives us a good idea of how thoroughly the fibres of the wool have been separated and drawn out.

The slivers are now passed on to the *spinning machine*, where the loose threads are passed through rollers and twisted into yarn, after which each length of yarn is wound on a bobbin, and passed on to the *weaving loom.* Before being woven into cloth, the yarn is *sized,* in order to strengthen it, and to prevent it from chafing in the weaving.

When woollen cloth first comes from the loom it looks very coarse, and has no *nap* on it. Therefore some further changes are necessary before it can be used as clothing. First, it is stretched upon a frame and *picked,* anything that would tend to make it rough being most carefully picked out; then it is *washed,* to take out the size and grease; then dyed, except the best cloths, which are *wool dyed*—that is, the wool used for them is dyed before carding. The cloth next passes through the *fulling mill,* where it is well beaten with fulling sticks, while it is saturated with warm soap-suds. The cloth is then put under heavy pressure, and thus the fibres of the wool are brought close together, and the cloth made to appear finer and closer. It is next *tented* or stretched on frames to dry; then comes the process of teazling or raising the nap. A teazle is the fruit of a plant having small hooked *spines,* or to use a more common word, *prickles.* The teazles are cut in halves and placed in a frame ; the cloth is then passed over them, and the little spines or prickles scratch up some of the woolly fibre of the cloth ; but not enough to injure the yarn, and thus the *nap* is produced. The cloth is then hot pressed, and made up in pieces ready for the tailor.

But we must not forget that the wool has undergone most of the processes named in this chapter for other purposes than that of making cloth. It has also been prepared for weaving into flannel, and all other woollen goods used for clothing, as well as spun into the fine "worsteds" and "fingerings" with which we knit, or *ought* to knit, our winter stockings.

We have several clothing materials made of other wool than that of the sheep. Of these the most beautiful and useful is *alpaca,* which is manufactured from the wool of the alpaca goat, and *llama* from the llama, both found in South America.

TOWNS ENGAGED IN WOOLLEN MANUFACTURE.	PROCESSES OF MANUFACTURE.	CLOTHING MATERIALS MADE FROM WOOL.
Leeds.	Sorting.	Cloth.
Bradford.	Scouring.	Flannels.
Huddersfield.	Willowing.	Merinos.
Halifax.	Oiling.	Serges.
Keighley.	Combing.	Felt.
Bingley.	Carding.	Tweeds.
Wakefield.	Reeling.	Plush.
Frome.	Spinning.	Stockings.
Stroud.	Weaving.	Alpaca.
Trowbridge.	Picking.	Llama.
Welshpool.	Washing.	
Newtown.	Dyeing.	
Llanidloes.	Fulling.	
Galashiels.	Tenting.	
	Teazling.	
	Pressing.	

Linen.—The manufacture of linen is a very ancient one. Mention is made of it in the oldest records of history; but its use has been so far superseded by cotton, that its manufacture is of comparatively small importance in our own country.

The town of Barnsley, in Yorkshire, is the principal seat of this branch of industry in England. It is carried on to a much larger extent in the east of Scotland, and in Ireland. When the flax plant has been pulled, the first process it undergoes is *rippling*, which consists in pulling the stalks through a series of iron teeth about a foot and a half long. This takes out the seeds, which we call *linseed*, a very useful domestic article. The flax is next put to steep in water until the woody portion of the stem begins to rot, when it can be easily removed. The flax is then spread out on the grass to dry. It is then passed through the breaking-machine, which breaks the boon or outer covering of the stem, without injuring the fibre inside. The next process is called *scutching*, which separates the fibres. The flax is then made up into bundles, and after various cuttings to separate the middle or best portion of the flax from the ends, it is passed on to the succeeding process of *hackling*. This thoroughly cleans the fibres by combing out the coarse refuse, which is called *tow*, used in making coarse sacking, &c.

The next process is to pass the flax through the spreading-machine, which brings the fibres out into a long narrow band. Then come the processes of *drawing* and *spinning*, which are nearly the same as in the cotton manufacture.

Linen is not naturally white, and in order to render it so, the process of *bleaching* is performed. This consists in numerous washings, after which it is laid out on the grass for two or three days—the process being repeated until the linen becomes white. This method is called *sun*-bleaching. Sometimes the manufacturers bleach it *chemically.* After bleaching comes the finishing process, of *calendering*, which renders the linen smooth and glossy, by passing it through heated cylinders.

TOWNS ENGAGED IN LINEN MANUFACTURE.	PROCESSES OF MANUFACTURE.	CLOTHING MATERIALS MADE FROM LINEN.
Leeds.	Steeping.	Linen Cloth.
Barnsley.	Breaking.	Diaper.
Belfast.	Scutching.	Check.
Armagh.	Hackling.	Holland.
Portadown.	Spreading.	Cambric.
Lurgan.	Drawing.	Lawn.
	Spinning.	
	Weaving.	
	Bleaching.	
	Calendering.	

Silk.—The manufacture of silk is carried on to a small extent only in England. We are indebted chiefly to French manufacturers for our most beautiful silks. It undergoes the processes of winding (from the cocoon), cleaning, twisting, weaving, dyeing, and finishing.

The silk manufacture gives employment to a large number of the inhabitants of the east of France, and of Lombardy, in the north of Italy, in both of which districts the silkworm is largely reared.

In our country, silk-weaving is carried on chiefly in Spitalfields (London), Macclesfield, and Derby.

Velvet is made from silk. A yard of velvet, such as good jackets are made of, would take a man a day to weave.

TOWNS ENGAGED IN SILK MANUFACTURE.	PROCESSES OF MANUFACTURE.	CLOTHING MATERIALS MADE FROM SILK.
Lyons.	Winding.	Silk for dresses.
Nismes.	Cleaning.	Sarsnet for linings.
Avignon.	Twisting.	Ties.
Tours.	Weaving.	Gloves.
St. Etienne.	Dyeing.	Stockings.
Turin.	Finishing.	Velvets.
Milan.		Ribbons.
Brescia.		Fringes.
Verona.		Buttons.
Vicenza.		
IN ENGLAND—		
Spitalfields.		
Macclesfield.		
Derby.		
Coventry (ribbons)		

Furs.—Looking at a map of North America, we see a large tract of country round Hudson's Bay, marked "British Territory," and which is generally known as the Hudson's Bay Territory.

To the fur-bearing animals of this country, and the hunting propensities of its native inhabitants, are we chiefly indebted for the warm, comfortable, and durable articles of clothing made of fur.

In reading the history of the fur-trade, we find that it was first taken up by some French colonists, over three hundred years ago. At that time, the North American Indians were so ignorant of the value of the skins of the animals they hunted and sold, that they used to bring them after the hunting season to Montreal, where they exchanged them for trinkets, knives, hatchets, kettles, blankets, coarse cloth, and other articles suited to their wants, but of very trifling value. The trade is now in the hands of "companies," having settlements in various parts of the territory.

The capture of fur-bearing animals is prosecuted to a large extent in Russian America. The seal fishing is also carried on to some extent along the coast and adjacent islands of this territory. The animals most in request are the ermine, sable, otter, and seal. Then come bears of various kinds, beavers, minks, lynxes, squirrels, musk rats, hares, and rabbits. The fur of the American silver fox is very valuable, also that of the red fox.

Russia exports large quantities of furs.

Leather.—The skins of animals are converted into leather by the process of *tanning*. Previous to tanning, the skins are placed in lime and water, in which mixture they are allowed to stand two or three weeks. This prepares them for the next processes of unhairing and fleshing, which are performed with large knives, made specially for this purpose.

The skins are placed in the tanpits, where they are left until they become soft. Then comes the actual tanning of them. This consists in steeping them in water with oak bark and tannin. Tannin is a substance extracted from nut galls and oak bark. The skins are white at first, but gradually become brown, and are then called *leather*.

The next process is "*currying*," and is the means by which the leather is made black and waterproof. A mixture of oil, lamp-black, and tallow is used for this purpose.

The finer kinds of leather are not tanned, but *tawed*. In this process they are placed in a mixture of alum and salt, after which they are washed, dried, and put into a preparation of the finest wheaten flour and yolks of eggs. This imparts the gloss and softness to the kid used for gloves and boot tops.

There are tanpits in many parts of the

country, but the chief seat of the leather manufacture is Bermondsey, in London, where there are extensive tanneries.

A very unpleasant odour arises from the tan-pits, and any one riding from London Bridge through Bermondsey will be very sensibly impressed with the fact that tan-yards should be as far removed from towns as possible. The following are the varieties of leather manufactured:—

1. *Thick Leather,* used for soles, and articles where great strength and wear are required.

2. *Roan,* used for bookbinding and slippers.

3. *Morocco,* for coach linings, upholstery, bookbinding, cases of various kinds.

4. *Russian,* used largely in bookbinding, making purses, etc.

5. *Calf,* for gloves, and more expensive shoes.

6. *Kid,* of which gloves, and the "uppers" of boots are made.

7. *Skiver,* for the linings of hats.

8. *Shamoy,* or wash-leather, for various purposes.

The boot and shoe trade is carried on chiefly in the counties of Northampton and Stafford.

Stockings are made in Nottingham and

Derby principally. Woollen stockings in Leicester and Loughborough. Gloves are also made in these towns, and in Worcester.

Lace, which adds so much to the finish of our clothing, is made in various parts of the country—Nottingham, Derby, Leicester, Northampton, and Honiton being the chief towns.

Straw Bonnets and Hats are made principally in Bedfordshire, Buckinghamshire, Hertfordshire, and Essex. The most important district is Bedfordshire; Luton and Dunstable being the chief towns.

The straw from which the bonnets and hats are made is collected by women and children, and sold to the manufacturers for about twopence per pound. After being cleared from leaves and other matters not required in the manufacture, it is cut into lengths, sorted, and tied in bundles. The straws are then split, flattened between wooden rollers, and handed over to the plaiters. Children in these districts are taught to plait at a very early age. It is not an unhealthy occupation, as in fine weather most of the plaiters work out in the open air. There are various kinds of plaits, such as diamond, rustic, and Devonshire. Sometimes the plaits are made up into bonnets in their natural colour, without bleaching. Large numbers of hands are employed in the warehouses in making the bonnets.

RECAPITULATION.

HAVING visited the busy hives of industry where our clothing is manufactured, we pronounce ourselves much astonished to find that the simplest kinds of clothing we wear have passed through so many hands and such numerous and wonderful machines. We naturally ask "If it takes so many people, and so many machines to make our clothing, how did our ancestors, who had no factories and no machinery, manage to get enough material to clothe themselves? The fact is, they were not so *fashionable* as we are. Their habits were simple, and their dress equally so. They had not so much money to spend, neither had they such temptations to spend it as we have in the present day. Most of their clothing was *home-spun*—queens, princesses, noble ladies, and all classes used to spin their own clothing. It used to cost them much time and labour, and there is no doubt they took good care of their clothes, and made them last much longer than we do. Our great-great-grandmothers would have thought it impossible that clothing should ever come to be manufactured by steam. Had any one in their day predicted that all our clothes would be manufactured by large machines worked by steam, and that when dressed we could go by steam to see a friend fifty miles away in an hour, they would have pronounced it beyond all reason that the world and its people should come to such a state of things, and would probably have consoled themselves by thinking that the world would soon come to an end if such things happened.

But such changes *have* occurred, and we are so familiar with them that it seldom occurs to us to ask "How have they been effected?"

Time was when England's manufactures were very few and very coarse, as far as clothing materials were concerned. But as years went by communication with other countries became more general, and their industry and skill in the art of manufacture were observed, and to some extent imitated by the English. Towards the close of the sixteenth century, a fearful persecution of the Huguenots, or French Protestants, caused many of them to take refuge in England. They settled in Spitalfields and Norwich, and in these districts followed their occupation of silk-weaving. The shelter afforded to them was the means of introducing the silk manufacture into England. At the same time the cruelties of the Duke of Alva, in the Netherlands, drove many Flemish artisans away from their country. They, too, took refuge in England, and to them may be traced a marked improvement in the woollen manufacture. Thus we see that the kindness shown to these persecuted refugees, in affording them shelter and protection, was not wasted.

But we must not forget the honour due to our own countrymen whose genius has invented the machines which have perfected the manufactures thus introduced, together with that of *cotton.* Chief amongst these we must mention James Hargreaves, Richard Arkwright, Samuel Crompton, Dr. Cartwright, Rev. William Lee, and last, but not least, James Watt, whose wonderful invention (the steam engine) sets the machines invented by the others in motion.

If time would allow us to trace here the history of each of those named, we should find that true genius is not the result of high birth or expensive education. Most of those who read these pages may not be able to boast of either of the latter, but many may possess much of the former, and, by a right use of the genius they have, may make for themselves a position in the world.

How striking are the results of the progress of manufacture in England! Trade has been opened up with all parts of the world, wealth has literally poured in from north, south, east, and west, whilst an enormous increase of population and rapid growth of towns, have made our land one mass of industry and wealth.

LESSON IV.

USE OF CLOTHING.

ALL human bodies, when in a healthy condition, have a certain degree of heat within them. This is called the *natural* heat of the body, and is the same in all bodies in whatever part of the world they may dwell. If the temperature of the body rises above its natural heat we are in a fever; if it sinks below it, our breathing is affected, and we become chilly. A chill impedes the circulation of the blood, and gives us cold. We must, therefore, endeavour to keep up the *natural heat* of the body, and in helping us to do this, our clothing has its chief use.

As the climates in which people live vary, so must the clothes they wear differ. The inhabitants of cold northern climates need their clothing to shield them from the intense cold, whilst those in hot countries require it to screen them from the sun's burning rays; hence we find the funny little Esquimaux dressed in bear skins and seal skins, and the inhabitants of tropical India wearing loose garments of cotton, or other light materials. In our changeable English climate we have to adapt our clothing to the various seasons and ever-varying weather; and unless we do so our health will suffer accordingly.

We must not imagine that our clothing *makes* us warm, it simply *keeps* us warm; that is, it prevents the natural heat of the body from escaping. On the same principle we put a cozy on the tea-pot. The heat is already *in* the pot, and the cozy *keeps* it there. A tea-pot cozy, you know, is made of some thick dark material, such as cloth or velvet, and lined with wool. If we were to cover the pot with one made of cotton or linen, it would be of no use whatever, for it would allow all the heat to escape. Thus you see that dark woollen materials are bad conductors of heat, while light cotton ones are good conductors. In winter we wear thick dark clothing, so as to keep in the heat of the body. In summer, the *natural* heat of the body must be the same, but as we have so much more *external* heat, owing to the powerful rays of the sun, we need clothing to keep out any extra supply of heat, and so wear light-coloured clothing of thin material. Light-coloured garments do not absorb the heat as dark ones do—that is, they do not retain or keep it in. You may prove this by putting two different articles, one of dark, and the other of light-coloured cloth on the ground in the sun, or near the fire for a short time, and you will soon discover which has absorbed the heat most—the dark or the light one.

Apart from its use as a protection, clothing has also its use as an ornament to the body, and when wisely and sensibly used for this purpose, is by no means out of place. But there is no ornament subjected to so much abuse as clothing, or so often misused through want of good taste or a proper knowledge of its bearing upon health.

LESSON V.

ABUSE OF CLOTHING.

WE live in an age when "dress" seems to be the ruling passion of the female sex. Many seem to forget that the great object of clothing is to make us comfortable and neat; and everybody seems to vie with everybody else as to who shall be, not *clothed* best, but *dressed* most. Some seem to think that to be *well* dressed they must be *showily* dressed. Some fancy that a combination of all the brightest colours imaginable is necessary to adorn their fine figures, while many others seem to think that human bodies were not made of such beautiful form as they might have been, and therefore they take upon themselves to *improve* them. What is the result of this? Waste of money, discomfort, loss of health, want of naturalness, and many other evils.

Attired according to the fashion, a person must necessarily spend much money in mere useless trifles, which add neither grace nor beauty to the figure, nor increase the comfort of the wearer. It is sad to think how many of our servants spend a portion of their wages in such things, and leave themselves without money for the more useful and comfortable articles of clothing. It is quite impossible to be or to feel natural with all the so-called "improvements" of fashion attached to our bodies. We are naturally erect, and it was never intended that we should walk with our heads hooked forward and our backs crescent-shaped, thus giving us what was some little time ago, fashionably called a Grecian bend. Never was a word more truly misapplied, for the bend is anything but Grecian. The Greek ladies knew nothing of tight stays, small high heels, or anything that *deformed* the body. They dressed with an ease and freedom that lent a graceful and natural appearance to their bodies, as seen in Grecian statues, which all the most eminent artists adopt as models.

This fashion has now gradually disappeared, only to give way to one equally absurd and unbecoming, which demands that those who adopt it should appear as much like animated *bolsters* as possible. But fickle Fashion loves extremes, and will, no doubt, suddenly change this for some other style.

Whatever confines the body must obstruct the various functions its different parts have to perform, and thus injure the health. Health and extreme fashion are seldom seen together—they are not friends. If all young people could be made to see the folly of being slaves to fashion, many would enjoy life much more than they do, and would in many instances prolong it. It seems a sin that the clothing which has been so plentifully provided to make us comfortable, healthy, and graceful, should be so misused as to injure our health and happiness, and deform the bodies so "fearfully and wonderfully made."

LESSON VI.

SELECTION OF CLOTHING.

IN introducing this very important point, we will endeavour to answer four questions, which shall give us some general rules for the selection of clothing, and then proceed to the special points to be attended to in buying the various materials of which our clothing is made.

(1.) *How shall we select clothing?* There are three things to be remembered in answering this question—our money, our climate, and our position in society—for we must select our clothing according to these things. Our money has to serve other purposes besides buying our clothing, and if we spend too much in dress, what will be the consequence? Either we must go short of food or some other comfort; or, worse still, run into debt, which is a very great evil.

The climate in which we live, and the different seasons ought to guide us. When the weather is warm or cold we must select what is suitable to it, or our health will suffer.

We should always dress according to our means. If we dress *above* our station in life we do much to injure our character; if we dress *below* our position, we lose the respect of our friends.

(2.) *What shall we select?* What is *good, neat,* and *durable.* Good, because good clothing will look better, wear better, and be cheaper in the end. Neat, because our taste will tell upon our character. Durable, because if we buy clothing that is *not* durable, we shall always be wanting new, and perhaps our income might not allow us to purchase at any time.

(3.) *Where shall we select?* At large, respectable shops, because a large tradesman would require a large custom, and would keep good articles, so that his word might be relied upon. It is not wise to buy clothing from those establishments which are constantly advertising "selling off," "great bargains." Bargains are very rare things, and no tradesman can afford to be *always* "selling off at less than cost price."

(4.) *When shall we select?* When we really need a thing, and when we have the money to buy it with. It is not well to buy clothing before we need it, as it does not improve by keeping, and our money lies by too, to no advantage.

The three great advantages of a good selection of clothing are—economy of our money, preservation of our health, and good influence upon society.

Before going out "shopping," it is well to consider *what* we want, *how much* we want, and *how much money we have to spend upon it.* This will save both ourselves and the salesman much time and trouble. If we can decide before going what kind of material we require, all the better. In order to do this, it is necessary that we should know something of the value, durability, and usefulness of the varied contents of a draper's shop. We will endeavour to lay down a few special points for guidance in the purchase of the most common articles of clothing.

Calico.—There is a great variety of make, quality, width, and price in this very useful article of clothing. We may obtain these varieties in the form of bleached or unbleached calico. Unbleached calico is much better than *white for* the wear of working people, as it wears better, washes easier, and when it has become whitened by constant good washing it often keeps a better colour than calico which was white at first. White calicoes have often a good deal of "dress" in them—that is, something put in to make them appear finer and closer than they really are.

A good calico of either kind may be known by its regular, closely woven threads and smooth surface. Very thin loosely woven calicoes are very unserviceable; but at the same time a good calico will be *soft* as well as close.

In choosing a calico, take one corner in your hands and rub it as if washing it; you will then see if it is free from dress. If there is any in it the rubbing will take it out, and make the corner look very thin and loose compared with the piece.

All good calicoes have nice even *selvages*, which may be very neatly sewn together. Choose a wide calico for underclothing. When it can be afforded, long-cloth is the best, and in the end, cheapest, but it requires good washing.

Linen is not in such demand for underclothing as it was a hundred years ago. It is very expensive, and on that account has given way to the fine and well-made long-cloths, which are now used for the same purposes. Still we cannot dispense with the linen-damask, of which our table-cloths are made, nor the diaper, which makes such pretty pinafores for the children.

A good linen has fine threads closely woven. The finest kind is known as *cambric,* of which the better kinds of pocket-handkerchiefs are made. Linen is most durable wear, and when too old to wear, is useful to have in store for bandages, dressing burns, and many "homely doctorings," which are worth every one's consideration.

Flannel.—This indispensable article of clothing *ought* to be *all wool,* but it is often mixed with cotton, and consequently is not so warm or durable as it should be.

It is no economy to buy a very cheap flannel. Welsh flannel is the best, as it is thick, soft, and serviceable. There are other varieties, known as Yorkshire and Lancashire, which serve many purposes as well as the Welsh, and may be purchased at a smaller cost. Very white flannels, except those of a high price, are *not the* best to buy. Those which have a bluish appearance when new generally wash white and keep a better colour than white ones at the same price.

A very good flannel for useful and children's wear, is known as *imitation* Welsh. It is rather blue when new, but washes white, keeps a good colour, and wears better than some of the more expensive white flannels.

Scarlet flannel makes useful winter petticoats, but it does not do for under vests, as the perspiration causes the colour to come out and dye cotton garments worn next to it.

Materials for Under-Skirts.—In this age of sewing machines, it is seldom that people buy material for making a skirt. We have skirts "ready-made" offered for sale in great variety of style, colour, and price. But experience teaches us that, as a rule, skirts made at home are more satisfactory in the end. Those we buy are generally made by chain-stitch machines, and when wearing them we find to our great annoyance that a stitch has given way somewhere, the whole row of stitches has come undone, and some part of the skirt hangs ready to be re-stitched. Let all who can, make their own.

For winter wear, dark-coloured or black skirts should be adopted. A black or dark grey will harmonize well with any dress, and always look neat.

Amongst the materials suitable for black skirts are—alpacas, Russel cords, satin cloths, and satinets. For coloured skirts, felt is a suitable material, being light, warm, durable, and inexpensive.

For summer skirts, it is not desirable nor economical to wear white always, on account of the washing. There is a variety of strong light-coloured materials, which look well, keep clean a long time, and make up very prettily. They are mostly striped or checked. It is very desirable to buy the material and make them at home, on account of the sewing, although they may be bought very cheaply ready-made.

Dress Materials.—These are so numerous, so varied in quality, texture, appearance, durability, and price, that a detailed description of all the fabrics offered for sale under this head would be almost impossible in a small book. We will, therefore, look more particularly at those which are best worth our money, and take just a *passing glance* at those which *look* well, but are not worth our purchase if we want a dress to *wear* well.

In purchasing a dress, it is well to remember that a good material, though it costs a few shillings more at first, is always cheaper in the end than a so-called cheap one. It will not only wear well, but will look well as long as it lasts.

All woollen materials wear well, and may be cleaned or dyed to look like new. Merinos, Scotch plaids, serges, wool reps, and others of the same class, are very serviceable if a good quality be purchased.

Mixed fabrics, under the name of lustres, diagonals, &c., look very nice, but do not last long. A shower of rain will often spoil a new dress of such materials, by making it "cockle," or become wrinkled and uneven. They are made of a mixture of wool and silk. When wet, the wool shrinks, but the silk does not. Wincey is a mixed material, being made of very stout cotton and wool. It wears well, and is very warm.

There are other materials sold under the name of alpaca, but which are only an imitation of the real thing.

Alpaca is made from the hair of the alpaca goat, and when pure, is an excellent material for wear, looking much like silk. White alpaca makes very pretty summer dresses for children, and when of a good quality will wash well.

Silk is one of the most durable dress materials, but it is the most expensive in its first cost. It is no economy to buy a cheap silk, as a good one will last as long as three poor ones, though it cost but the value of two.

Washing materials, such as muslins, prints, hollands, are cheap and durable, as well as light and pretty, for summer wear. The only objection to them is that they make washing.

In purchasing muslins and prints, care must be taken to choose colours that will wash. The best colour for washing is lilac. Blue, mauve, violet, are very treacherous. Some shades of green wash well with care. Hoyle's prints are the best, both for quality of cloth and durability of colour.

Stockings.—For warmth and wear, home-knitted stockings are decidedly the best. They last a very long time, and may be re-footed, and made to last longer still.

It is far from economical to purchase cheap stockings. They must necessarily be made of inferior material, or they could not be sold so cheaply. They are also "stitched" in at the heels, toes, and sides of the feet, which makes them very uncomfortable to wear, and causes them to come in holes soon. Stockings of good quality are woven with double heels, made of superior yarn, wear three or four times as long as cheap ones, save much time and trouble in mending, and are really much cheaper in the end.

Shoes.—These are very expensive articles of clothing, poor people with large families often being puzzled to know how to meet the demand for them. The best are cheapest. Stitched ones wear better than pegged ones, and are much more comfortable. Kid tops are not durable for heavy or children's wear. Thin leather is better, as it can be blacked to look well as long as it lasts, while kid wears brown and shabby. Levant leather tops are very durable, if a good quality be purchased. In cheaper kinds of boots, the Levant tops are merely an imitation of the real leather.

In purchasing boots and shoes, a good rule is to fit them so that you can walk easily in them the first time of wearing. If this rule were more universally observed, there would not be such demand for "corn plasters." Little children are often the victims of small shoes, and are made to suffer through life on account of inattention to the comfort of their feet when young.

Bonnets and Hats.—These are made in such variety of shape, style, colour, and price that to describe them minutely would be simply impossible.

In choosing them, three things should be considered—their durability, suitability, and adaptability. "Flimsy" millinery is not durable, "showy" millinery is not suitable, and neither one nor the other is adapted for wear at all times.

A neat black or dark-coloured velvet bonnet is well adapted for winter wear, being durable and suited to any complexion. Felts trimmed with velvet or silk are also useful and durable. For summer time, straw bonnets neatly trimmed are cheapest and most durable. Hats are cheaper than bonnets for regular wear, and are very becoming for young people.

Jackets, Mantles, and Shawls.—In the present day, these articles are made to suit every figure, taste, and means—but our old rule, of "the best is cheapest," must still be observed. Poor cloth, or silk jackets and cheap shawls soon look old and shabby, while good ones will well repay their cost by doing us good service.

And now, having looked at all the most important articles of clothing, we will leave the minor ones, in the shape of gloves, ties, etc., and end our subject, "The Selection of Clothing," by putting together, so as to be easily remembered, a few special rules for guidance.

THINGS TO BE REMEMBERED WHEN GOING OUT "SHOPPING."

1. Go to a large, respectable shop.
2. Select what is good, neat, and durable.
3. Do not spend more than you can really afford.
4. Do not spend more than is necessary on one thing, and so have to go short of another.
5. Nothing is cheap that we do not want, therefore do not be persuaded to buy what you do not want in the hope that it will "come in some day."
6. The best is the cheapest in the end.

LESSON VII.

MAKING OF CLOTHING.

TO the making of clothing there is no end, for it belongs to that very long list of "things that *will* wear out," and must needs be replaced. Every girl should learn how to cut out and make clothing while she is young. To be able to cut out and make any article of clothing without infringing too much the rights of the tailor, is an accomplishment of which any woman, whatever her position, may very justly be proud. But, like all other accomplishments, this is one not learnt in a day. It is to be attained only by steady perseverance and constant practice.

There are many advantages in being able to make our own clothes. The greatest of these is economy of our money. We can get nothing done without paying for it, unless we do it ourselves. Therefore, the best thing is, to depend *upon ourselves* for what we want doing. A very simple and homely illustration will suffice to show the economy of making clothing at home. Take, for instance, a respectable working man's wife, needing a dress for herself or a frock for one of the children. She has only so much to spend upon the one or the other, and since she cannot make either of them herself, must reserve a portion of the money to *pay* for the making. What is the consequence of this? Simply that she must buy inferior material, and the dress or frock will not wear so long. Now, had she been able to make them herself, and spend the whole of the money on the material, she would have had the double satisfaction of having saved the money she would have spent in the making, and a dress or frock that would wear twice as long as one made of poor material.

Another advantage is that when we make a thing ourselves, we can make it to suit our own taste. When we put it out to be made, we have to make the best of it when it comes home, and very often we are disappointed in it. Then we always feel more proud of a thing when we can say, "I made it myself," rather than "It *cost* me so much for making."

There are some who think they *cannot* make clothing, and therefore never *try*. But, by using their eyes, a pair of scissors, a pattern, and a little *judgment,* most people may overcome all difficulties in cutting out. Of course they may not succeed at once, then patience and perseverance must come in to complete the conquest.

In cutting out, there are many things to be remembered. First, we must see how we can cut our material to the best advantage. This can best be done by laying the pattern upon it to see how one part will cut near to another. Then we must bear in mind what size of garment is required ; if for a child, we must allow just a little room for *growing*. We must remember, too, that a garment does not *look* well unless it *fits* well, and must not mind the trouble of tacking the parts together and trying it on before sewing. In cutting out dress materials, we must not forget the right and wrong side of them ; also, the right way of the pattern which may be upon them. Plain materials are easiest to cut to anyone who is not experienced in cutting out.

One of the first things a girl should learn in *cutting* out is the straight, selvage, and cross ways of calico and other materials. *Selvage* is the *length* way of material, *straight* the *width* from side to side, and by laying the straight and selvage edges together cornerwise and cutting across where the material doubles, we have a *cross*-piece.

All *bands* in underclothing should be cut the selvage way of the calico, as it is stronger than the straight, and will better bear the strain of wear.

Gussets must be put in so that the edge of them when finished will be *cross.* They are put in to prevent the garment from tearing down the seams. If put in so that the edge would be the straight way of the calico, the gussets themselves would tear in wearing, but the cross way of the calico *stretches,* instead of tearing. Shirt, chemise, and night-gown sleeves wear better when cut *half*-cross, that is, with the material doubled not quite so far over as in cross. This rule applies also to woollen shirts. Shirt and night-gown sleeves wear out quickest at the elbows, but when the sleeves are cut so that the part next the elbows is half-cross, the sleeves *give* a little when the elbows bend, and there is not that strain upon them there would be if they were quite straight.

When cutting out flannel vests or petticoats, we must not forget that there is a *right side* in flannel. It is rather difficult to distinguish in some flannels, but it is the side upon which the *nap* appears most distinctly. The *list*, or coloured selvage must be torn off the flannel before cutting it. This should not be wasted, but reserved until a sufficient quantity is collected for making a child's skirt. To make a skirt of it, it is only necessary to run the list on to a piece of thin calico, row after row, laying the edges just over each other. When done, bind the bottom with scarlet braid, and set the top into a band. Thus, what might have been thrown aside as useless, is converted into a warm, comfortable, and by no means ugly petticoat for a little child.

In cutting out any article of clothing, it is better to use a flat paper pattern than to cut from another made-up article, since it is impossible to cut as accurately from the latter as the former. It is a good plan to cut open the seams and cut off the bands of any old garment of a good fit, and take the pattern from it in paper for future use. For dress-making, a pattern should be cut from the body-lining of an old dress that fitted well.

Having cut out clothing, the next point is to make it neatly. It is very provoking to see an article of clothing badly made. In this age of sewing-machines, we can get an article made at a very small cost, *looking* very neat, but probably coming to pieces the first time it is worn. Or perhaps we find an end of cotton hanging in some conspicuous part; we take hold of it to break it off, when, lo! yards of cotton follow it, and we find that a whole seam is undone or a frill half-way off. If we must buy our clothing ready-made, let us beware of anything made by a chain-stitch machine. When a lock-stitch machine is used at home the sewing will look neat, and will also wear well if we take care to fasten the ends well. But no girl should be allowed to use a machine until she can sew well by hand, or it is very probable she will not care to take the trouble to make a thing neatly when a machine is not to be had.

If work is to look well when sewn, it must be neatly fixed. A hem must be turned down by a thread. In sewing it, take the needle through so as to make a very small stitch on the right side. Many seem to think that neat hemming should have the stitches almost invisible. In order to give it this appearance the needle is not taken *thoroughly* through the calico, and when it comes to be washed the stitches leave the under side of the hem. This leaves a space in the hem with the stitches on the top side only. Both the turned edge and the calico underneath must be sown *through* if the hem is to wear.

Sewing and *felling* form an important part of plain needlework. When a seam has to be sewn and felled, it must not be turned down too wide, or it will look clumsy. In sewing, the seam must not be held *round* or *over* the finger, but along the side of it, or the result will be a *puckered* seam. When *running* two straight edges together, care must be taken to prevent the upper one from *sliding* by the action of the thumb, or the seam will be puckered. When running a cross and a straight piece together, we must hold the cross piece uppermost, taking care not to stretch it. If we held the cross underneath, it would stretch a little and cause the seam to look ugly when done.

Stitching must be kept very straight and even by drawing a thread.

Gathering is a most important part of needlework. The stitches must be made uniform, or they will not look nice when *stroked.* Stroking is a word often very much misunderstood. We sometimes *hear* girls, and, sad to say, grown-up people too, scraping away with all their might and a large pin, and calling it *stroking the gathers.* The result is that the gathers look very little better, and the calico very much worse for the scraping it has had. *Laying* the gathers would convey a better idea of how they should be treated. There should be no noise, but each gather should be *laid* straight and held tightly under the thumb. In setting on a band, the gathers must be regularly sewn to it—not close together in one part and a distance from each other in another. Care must be taken not to pucker the band.

Button-Holes form a very important part in the making of clothing. A badly-made buttonhole looks ugly and wears out very soon. In order to make it so as to look neat, a buttonhole must be cut quite straight, worked evenly, and the edges must meet when finished. A *gaping* button-hole never looks neat. To avoid this it is better to work the sides first, and make a bar at each end afterwards, in the form of a loop, worked so close to the calico that it almost appears to be worked into it.

There are many other kinds of needlework which it would be beyond the province of this little book to describe, but we must not omit to mention the leisurely, though economical and industrious occupation of

Knitting. This is a light, easy work when we are too tired to sew, since it does not need such close application as needlework. Many useful and comfortable articles of clothing may be made by knitting. Cuffs, ties, braces, vests, cross-overs, &c., and last, but most important, *stockings*. In praise of home-knitted stockings too much cannot be said. Experience teaches us that they wear three times as long as bought ones, and can then be made to wear longer still if re-footed. They save much time and trouble in mending, and when the heels or toes are much worn new ones can easily be knitted to them.

LESSON VIII.

MENDING OF CLOTHING.

"A STITCH in time saves nine," is a very old proverb, but very full of meaning. If an article of clothing be mended *at once,* the rent in it will not become larger; but if left for a few days it will be sure to require much more time and trouble in mending, or *nine* stitches where *one* would have sufficed.

"The mending" in a family is a most important item, since so much economy may be practised by a due attention to it. It is well to have a set mending day each week, as this is the best means of keeping things in order All linen should be looked over and mended before washing, or the holes will be found much larger when washed. The clothes must also be looked over after the wash, before putting them away, or very probably some article will be found torn or short of buttons and strings when wanted to put on.

When any article of underclothing has become "past mending," the best parts of it should be cut out and reserved for patching. New calico should never be used for this purpose; the strength of the new would help to tear the old, and, in addition to this, the new calico would probably shrink a little, and so cause the patch to look puckered when washed. Patches must be laid on evenly, by a thread, taking care that the selvage of the patch is laid to the selvage of the garment. To look neat a patch must have a very narrow felling, which must not be made *wider at the corners.* A neat patch is preferable to a darned hole in linen. It takes a long time to darn calico, and unless it be very neatly done will not give such satisfaction, either in appearance or wear, as a neat patch would. If a hole be near a seam, the seam should be opened and one side of the patch be sewn into it. For example: chemises often wear out where the sleeves are set in. If the sleeves be taken out, the chemise may be patched and the sleeves sewn in again to the patch. If new chemises were always made with narrow sleeve-linings, the necessity *for patching* them would be done away with.

In looking over the linen we often find the ends of bands, where the buttons and button-holes are, torn through. In such cases, the torn pieces should be taken off from the gathers and new ones put in, together with new button and button-hole.

But we must not forget that *outer* as well as underclothing needs occasional mending. If there are boys in the family they will often remind us of this—in fact almost daily; for where is the real boy whose coat and trousers are not the constant victims of climbing, tumbling, paper-chasing, and a host of other things sacred to boy life?

Trousers are often awkwardly torn at the knees. The best way to mend them is to take the piece out from seam to seam, and insert a new one. When new clothes are bought, a few pieces of the cloth from which they are made should be secured for mending purposes. The tailor will probably not think of sending any pieces home with new suits unless he is asked to do so. If only a small rent is made in the trousers, it may be neatly mended by what is called a "three-cornered darn," in which the needle is passed *under* each edge of the tear alternately in a straight direction, the stitch being brought *over* each edge. By this means the slit is drawn neatly and closely together, and in cloth will scarcely be visible. Tears in coats and dresses may be mended in the same way. Coat sleeves often become worn and ragged at the wrists. If neatly bound with fine braid they will look quite new again, and wear a long time.

Stockings need constant attention. The thin parts should be strengthened by darning on the wrong side. If taken in time this will prevent the thin places becoming holes, and save much trouble in the mending. It is a great mistake to suppose that stockings need no mending until we see holes in them. When darning a hole, we must not forget that the stocking needs strengthening some little distance round the hole, and so darn it accordingly. A tiny loop should be left each time the needle is drawn out, to allow for the shrinking of the darning wool or cotton. Stockings will not last for ever, and will become very uncomfortable wearing if mended over and over again. Home-knitted stockings have the advantage *again in* mending, for the toes can be cut off, and new ones knitted to when past mending. New heels can also be put in. New stockings should always be *run* in the heels and toes, on the wrong side, before wearing, in order to strengthen them.

We may save ourselves much trouble in mending if we always take care to *make* a thing well; remembering that "Whatever is worth doing, is worth doing well." An ill-made article of clothing is sure to come to pieces soon, and thus cost twice as much trouble in mending as a little extra attention in making would have done. Thus "a stitch in time" when making a thing, will "save nine" in mending it.

LESSON IX.

TURNING TO ACCOUNT OF CLOTHING.

ARTICLES of clothing are often cast aside as useless without a thought of what further use they may be put to. By the exercise of a little tact and patience, almost everything that is worn may be turned to account, either for its original wearer or some smaller member of the family. The turning to account of clothing offers a fine scope for practising *economy*; and practical experience teaches us how much we can save in a year by making the best of an old thing. Of course an article must be of good quality at first or it will not be of much service in turning to account. A good dress will turn and look well again, or if it be of good woollen material, will wash. After wearing again, the best parts will make a skirt, or may be used for a child's frock. But a practical illustration will best show how a good dress may be turned to some advantage time after time. Here is one.

A good wool rep dress was purchased of that very serviceable colour, a *dark* maroon. After good wear for two winters it was dyed a dark brown, re-made in different style, and worn throughout another winter for hard common wear. Next winter it was washed, and the best parts of it made into a princess dress for a little girl of eight. After doing duty in this capacity for a whole winter, it was considered good enough for a "Sunday frock" for the poor child to whom it was given. This proves very fully that the "best is cheapest in the end," and that a good article may be turned to some account after it has served the purpose for which it was first intended. Of course these "re-makings" and "turnings" must be done at home, for so-called economy will avail us little if we *pay* for them to be done by a dressmaker.

Dresses are not the only articles of clothing that may be turned to account. The best parts of half-worn chemises and night-gowns may be cut up into smaller ones for the little children, and the re-making of them will find work for the girls who are learning to sew. The same with flannel petticoats. When worn thin in parts, the best may be taken out and made into very small petticoats for babies, and will afford the elder girls a good opportunity of learning to herring-bone nicely.

Then there is always something that may be made up for the little boys. What a nice little suit for every-day wear may be made out of the best parts of an old blue serge dress, with the addition of a few yards of braid and a few buttons; and tiny Tom of four years old will think it quite as new as if it had just come from the tailor's. Coats, trousers, and waistcoats may all be cut up and re-made for the boys, as long as they wear knickerbockers. In making a boy's suit out of a larger one, do not use the old seams, but cut them off before cutting out the smaller suit. Care must be taken to press the new seams well open with a hot iron. The linings of the suit must be made to fit nicely to the cloth, or the appearance of the suit will betray that it is home-made. There are sure to be some good-sized pieces of cloth left after cutting the smaller suit out of the large one, which may be used for making a cap quite good enough to play in. A round piece of the best will make the crown, a strip about three inches deep will do to stitch round it, with a lining of black twilled linen. A band of broad military braid, and a button in the centre of the crown will complete the cap. All the cuttings left should be put into a bag and reserved for making a hearth-rug for the kitchen.

And so we might go on enumerating the "new things" that may be made out of old ones; but to any one of a *managing* disposition many things will present themselves as worth turning to account, though not mentioned here.

This chapter may be pronounced to be "rigidly economical," but it is written on the principle of the old proverb, "*Waste not, want not,*" and nothing is said but what has been proved to be quite practicable to anyone who is anxious to make the best of everything.

LESSON X.

CARE OF CLOTHING.

CLOTHING, like everything else, lasts much longer for being taken care of. If dust, grease, and finger-marks are allowed to accumulate on our furniture, it soon looks shabby, and presents the appearance of having done some one a "good turn" before *we* purchased it. Just so with our clothing. If not kept well brushed and free from dirt, it will soon look shabby, though it may have cost us a good price.

Outer clothing should always be brushed after wearing, before putting away. Dresses, jackets, coats, and all large articles of outer wear, should be hung up rather than folded and put into a drawer. They are more liable to become creased in folding, and thus sooner rendered old and worn-looking. If a spot of grease be found upon any article when brushing it, it should be *removed* at once by sponging with a few drops of ammonia in a little water. If a grease spot be allowed to remain, it is sure to spread, and be much more trouble to take out than it would have been at first.

Bonnets and hats require brushing also, but must be done with a soft brush and a light hand.

But brushing our clothes and putting them away is not the only way of taking care of them. We must take care of them while we have them on. A neat little holland apron with a bib to it may easily be kept in the kitchen drawer to put on if we have anything to do in the kitchen in the evening, such as cutting bread-and-butter for tea, &c. We often find little things of this kind want doing after we have put on our afternoon dresses, and this handy little apron will save us many a grease spot. Then, again, it is *decidedly unnecessary* that we should sweep the streets with our dresses, since we pay a good price, in *rates*, in order that this matter may be attended to by some one else than ourselves. " Economy" is our motto, therefore we cannot afford to pay twice over for anything, and least of all for sweeping the streets. We may take care of our clothes, too, by not putting on our best ones in unsuitable weather, simply because we are going out.

Then comes the care needed in putting away our clothes at changes of season. Woollen articles should be well brushed, or, if necessary, washed, folded very neatly, and put into a drawer, care being taken to air them well first. Furs, too, must be brushed, shaken, aired, and wrapped in brown paper before putting away. A little bag of camphor put into the drawers with woollen and fur articles will prevent the moths from getting into them. They will need taking out several times during the summer, shaking well, and fresh camphor putting into the bags.

Washing dresses and white skirts must never be put away for the winter with the starch in them, or it will rot and discolour them. They should be washed and well dried, then folded and put away. Occasionally during the winter they will need taking out and airing. Underclothing should be aired occasionally when not in wear, for if it has been carelessly put away without thorough airing, it will become mildewed. It is not advisable to allow underclothing to lie by any length of time without wearing.

Attention to all these points will help our clothes to last us much longer, and to look well as long as they last.

LESSON XI.

HOW TO DRESS.

(1.) *According to your means.* A love of display often tempts people to spend more upon dress than they can really afford. This leads to many evils, not least among them being *debt* and *loss of character.*

(2.) *According to your position.* An overdressed female always gives one the impression that she is *trying* to look like somebody else in a better position than herself, but cannot quite manage it. A servant trying to look like her mistress, is a mistaken girl who should see herself as others see her, in order to convince her how foolishly she is acting. Our best and truest friends like us to seem what we really are, and we shall lose their respect if we pretend to be something or somebody else.

(3.) *Suitably.* A good complexion and "rosy cheeks" do not need all the colours of the rainbow about them. A flaring red bonnet, tie, or dress, would spoil such a complexion, and display a great want of taste. A good dark colour, or a bit of modest blue, would be far more suitable. A pale complexion will be improved by a little colour round it, but it should be a coloured tie, or bow in the bonnet, rather than a bright coloured dress.

(4.) *Sensibly.* With a good old-fashioned view to health and comfort. The form of clothing changes with fashion, but that need not interfere with health and comfort, unless we allow fashion to lead us to its extremes. If sensibly clothed, we shall be clothed so as to protect the body from chills and cold, and with our clothing sufficiently loose and easy to allow all the organs and muscles of the body free action. Young people especially are apt to forget that clothing needs changing with the weather, and by undue exposure to sudden cold contract diseases which remain with them through life, and probably hasten their death. It is of little avail to put on warmer clothing *after* we have taken cold ; it is like "closing the stable door after the horse has run away." The great point is to clothe ourselves *gradually* warmer, or cooler as the weather becomes gradually colder, or warmer. We must not rush into our winter clothes when we actually see the snow, but have them on ready to meet it. Just so we must not leave them off with the first gleam of sunshine we see, but merely take warning, that we may think how best to lay them aside without taking cold.

The clothing of the feet is a matter of highest importance to all; dryness and warmth must be attended to by those who value health. No one is sensibly dressed who goes out in wet or cold weather with thin boots and cotton stockings on. When the feet have become unavoidably wet or damp while out walking, the shoes and stockings should be changed *immediately* on arriving home. There is no doubt but little children, who cannot think for themselves, are often the victims of croup and bronchitis, through the thoughtlessness or carelessness of mothers or nurses, in not attending to the warmth and dryness of their feet.

To be sensibly dressed we must be *easily* dressed—not pinched up in stays and tight dresses until we have no room to breathe. Tight-lacing is a terrible evil—in fact, a sort of slow death, for the heart and lungs, together *with many* other important organs of the body, cannot possibly act properly if denied the room which Nature has given them. Instances have been known in which the heart, lungs, and liver have been completely pushed out of their places by tight-lacing. The effects of stays upon children are doubly evil. The organs of the body cannot develop into sound healthy ones if the body itself is not allowed to grow. No growing girl should be allowed to wear stays, and should be so impressed with the evil effects of tight-lacing, that she will either never wear them at all, or take care that they are light, soft, and loose.

While warm enough to protect the body, our clothing must not be too heavy, or it will cause us to feel weak and incapable of action. It is a great mistake in the female costume of our country, that heavy skirts are suspended from the waist. There is no doubt that this is one of the chief reasons why women cannot accomplish a long walk or a certain amount of bodily exercise so easily as men, whose clothing is suspended from the shoulders. The skirt braces recently invented are exceedingly sensible, and it is to be hoped they will come into very general use. By wearing them, the skirts become suspended from the shoulders, the bands, which may be left moderately loose round the waist, being hooked to the braces. They are very specially adapted to young girls, who do not, *or should not* wear stays.

LESSON XII.

HOUSEHOLD LINEN.

ALTHOUGH it does not come directly under the head of "clothing," the household linen is so nearly allied to it that a short chapter on the subject will scarcely be out of place here.

Household linen needs as much care and management as underclothing. All the sheets, pillow and bolster cases, together with blankets and counterpanes, will require occasional mending and turning, as well as proper care during winter and summer.

All clean linen not in use should be kept in a very dry place, the strictest attention being paid to the *airing* of it before putting it away. If linen be put away in a damp state and allowed to remain any length of time it will become mildewed and be very difficult to put right again. Blankets, too, must be protected from moths during the summer.

Then comes the mending and turning of the household linen. Sheets will wear thin in the middle, and must be repaired by turning the sides to the middle. The two selvages must be sewn together, which will form a seam in the middle of the sheet, and the thin part must be hemmed, after being cut through, to form the sides. Should any part be found too thin to hem, a piece should be let in before hemming. Thus a sheet may be made to last much longer; and may yet again be economised by turning the ends to the middle.

Blankets may be mended in the same manner as sheets, and will then serve for summer wear, or may be used as under-blankets.

Quilts are mended by darning. If worn or *torn* at the corners, they may be cut up for small beds, in which case it is well to bind them all round to afford extra strength.

Toilet-covers and towels must be darned when worn in holes.

Table cloths, and all damask linen should be repaired by darning. "Flourishing cotton" should be used for this purpose, as it is much softer than ordinary darning cotton. When a tablecloth is too much worn to mend, the best parts of it will serve to make tray-cloths, dinner-napkins for the children, or little round and oval cloths that well serve for the bread or cheese dish, and many other little purposes. All old linen, whether plain or damask, should be taken care of for bandages and dressings in cases of accident. We may roll it up and put it away in the hope of never wanting it for such a purpose, but shall find it exceedingly useful if we ever should need it.

When past mending, sheets may be made into dusters. Toilet-covers and thick towels come in useful for housemaids' cloths or dish cloths, and old blankets serve well for house-flannels; all of which are in constant demand in the kitchen. An old sheet should be reserved for a dust-sheet, to cover over the beds and other furniture when sweeping.

In order to keep up the stock of household linen, it is well to add a little of each kind every year. If the whole stock were allowed to wear out before adding to it, it would prove very inconvenient to be short in case of sickness or any other emergency. Besides, it is often an easier matter to spare the money for a few additions, than to purchase a whole new stock at once. The making of a few bolster and pillow slips, and the hemming of a few sheets and towels each year, will be easier than having a whole stock to do at once.

LESSON XIII.

OLD CLOTHES AND WHAT BECOMES OF THEM.

IT is not every one who makes the best of old clothes by turning them to account. When worn, or half worn, they are often cast aside as useless, and allowed to accumulate in some drawer, closet, or wardrobe, until their owner becomes weary of seeing the dusty, frowzy-looking old garments, and takes some opportunity of disposing of them. Those who are charitably disposed will generally give them to their less fortunate fellow-creatures, who will in many cases take the first chance they have of *selling* rather than wearing them. The money thus obtained is often spent very foolishly.

Those to whom money is an object sell their cast-off clothing to some of the numerous dealers in "old clothes," who are to be met with in most of our large towns and cities, but very largely so in London. The cry of "Old clo'" is familiar to all dwellers in the great city, as are also the numerous barrows of bright-looking fuchsias, geraniums, and other flowers which the coster is quite willing to exchange for old clothes, knowing that he makes decidedly the best bargain. Then, again, there are the numerous hawkers of gaudy crockery, glass, and ornaments, at the sight of whose baskets the unthrifty working man's wife is tempted to part with something she might have turned to account for her children.

These methods of collecting old clothes have given rise to an enormous trade, which has its chief centre in Houndsditch, London, where there is a large old clothes mart. This vicinity, together with Petticoat-lane, is inhabited chiefly by the Jewish dealers in old clothes, who are dignified by the name of merchants. One cannot imagine anything but sheer necessity or curiosity tempting anyone to visit these inodorous neighbourhoods. Here piles of old clothes are daily deposited, and we ask "What now becomes of them?" In answer to this question we may say that these *old* garments are here prepared for entrance into a *new* sphere of life, and their travels will be far and wide.

Those that are intended to remain in this country are *transformed.* The "clobberer," the "translator," and the "reviver" each take part in this transformation of old clothes into new ones. The duty of the "*clobberer*" is to patch and mend such as need it; black cloth garments pass into the hands of the "*revivers,*" who clean seedy-looking black coats, and for the moment make them look like new. The "*translator's*" duty is of a higher order; his office is to transfer one garment into another—the skirts of a cast-off coat being the least worn part of the garment, make capital waistcoats and tunics for children. Hats are revived in a wonderful manner; they are cut down to take out the grease marks, re-lined, and appear in the shops almost like new ones. The streets surrounding the old clothes market are full of shops, where these "clobbered" and "revived" goods are exposed for sale; and a stranger to the trade would scarcely know but they were new goods. The *ladies' market* is a vast wardrobe of dresses, many of them silk ones, and the saleswoman assures us that it is not *poor* people who come there to buy. Black cloth clothes that are too far gone to be clobbered and revived, are always sent abroad to be cut up to make caps. *France* takes the best of these old clothes for this purpose. *Russia* and *Poland*, where caps are always worn by the working men, are content with very threadbare garments to be cut up for this purpose. The great bulk of cast-off clothes, however, finds its way to two countries—*Ireland* and *Holland*. All kinds of old clothes find their way to the land of Erin, while to Holland only special articles are sent. Strange enough, the red coats of our soldiers find their way to the land of dykes, where the sleeves are cut off, and the jackets worn next the skin by all careful Dutchmen among the labouring classes, amongst whom there is a popular belief that red cloth affords the best protection against rheumatism. The Irish are fond of corduroys, and there is no doubt that the worn-out legs of British trousers of this material are made into breeches for poor Pat. Where he gets his swallow-tailed coat, with brass buttons, is a mystery—certainly not from England.

Old woollen garments, too old, rotten, or thin to be used again as clothing, are not thrown away as useless. They are sold to the "*Shoddy Mills*" in Yorkshire, where the old cloth is unravelled, cleaned, and, with the addition of a little new wool, re-woven into cloth. The work at these mills is by no means pleasant, and many of the workmen suffer from what is called "shoddy fever," a kind of bronchitis caused by the effect of the dust upon the throat.

Old boots and shoes find their way very largely into the old clothes dealers' hands. There is great demand for them, and the price varies from threepence to four shillings and sixpence; in some instances a little more. Very old boots and shoes are "*translated*" in a very wonderful manner, being patched up with brown paper and blacking so as to make them look as if they were very little worn. Old stockings are of great sale, both for home wear and foreign trade. They are sold from a penny to fourpence a pair.

To enumerate all the articles that are collected together in the Jewish old clothes quarters of London, would be almost impossible here; but, to those who do not object to it, a walk down Petticoat or Rosemary lanes will give the best idea of the curious collection offered for sale under the name of Old Clothes.

LESSON XIV. (SUPPLEMENTARY.)

WASHING.

THE practice of washing at home is to be commended for many reasons. In the first place it is more *economical.* Experience teaches us that washing is very expensive when put out. As a rule, the charge made by a laundress is from a shilling to fifteen pence a dozen, taking one thing with another. In a small family where there are say about seven dozen clothes in a week, the cost would be something very considerable. Now, by having them washed at home, with the help of a charwoman, at least one third of the money might be saved, and in neighbourhoods where coal is cheap, even more.

In the next place, if the washing be done at home, everything that is dirty is more likely to get washed ; whereas, if put out, something will probably be overlooked and left dirty for another week. This will not add to the healthiness of our homes, especially if the articles overlooked be dirty towels or aprons, carelessly put aside by some one in the kitchen.

In the third place, it is *safer* to wash at home. When sent out to wash, our clothes are very liable to get lost, or spoiled by careless washing and drying. Again, when we put the washing out it is sure to be mixed up in the wash with other clothes, and unless we are quite sure that the laundress is careful and judicious as to what she takes in, we run great risk of having some infectious disease brought home with the clothes. Of course such cases are rare, but they have been known to occur, and it is well to avoid the possibility of them.

Having decided in our own minds that it is certainly better to wash at home, the next thing is to consider the best way to accomplish it without interfering with the comfort of the home. "Washing-day" is in many homes looked forward to and dreaded as a day of dampness, steaminess, untidiness, and general "muddle." This is in a great measure owing to the want of proper management of the washing.

Very often no preparation is made the day previous to the wash, and to this neglect is added the fact of *late rising*, consequently *late beginning* on washing-day. Early rising is *the* secret of a comfortable washing-day.

The day before the wash, the clothes should be *sorted* and put in *soak*. All the best white linen must be soaked apart from the coarser articles, or they will become a bad colour. Linen cuffs, fronts, and collars should also be soaked separately, as well as table-linen. Coloured things, flannels, and woollen materials should *not* be laid in soak. The lye for soaking may be made either of soap and soda or a good washing-powder. If of the former, the soap must be cut into small pieces, put into a pail with a little soda, and sufficient boiling water poured on it to melt the soap. This may then be poured into the tub and more water added until there is enough. The lye must be lukewarm, *not* hot, when the clothes are put into it. The same manner of proceeding may be adopted when washing powder is used. If the clothes are thus well soaked the previous day, they will require very little rubbing, as the action of the soap, soda, or powder, together with the water, will *have so* loosened the dirt that it will easily rub out.

It is best to begin the wash with the flannels and coloured things. They are quickly washed, and must be quickly dried. Some good strong suds must be made for the flannels. In these, each article must be washed separately by being moved about and dipped in and out, *but not rubbed.* After this, each must be rinsed in clean warm water in which just a little soap has been dissolved. The white flannels should be done first, and the same suds will do for the coloured ones. A little blue should be added to the rinse to give the white flannels a better colour when dry. Flannels should never be *rubbed* or *wrung,* as this would cause them to shrink and thicken by working the little woollen fibres together. When washed the flannels must be *squeezed* dry, well shaken, and hung out at once. A little soap is necessary in the rinsing-water, because pure water would render the flannels harsh, and help them to shrink. The water in which flannels and woollen articles are washed must not be too hot, nor should they ever be put into cold water.

The coloured prints may be washed in the same water as the flannels, but they must be rinsed in cold water to make them look clear.

A little salt or alum added to the rinse will help to freshen the colours and prevent them "running."

The water in which the flannels were rinsed will serve for the first washing of the white things. These will require two waters before boiling, and the second one will serve as first water for the coarse articles. All the linen, both fine and coarse, will require two waters before boiling.

The water in the copper must be prepared by dissolving the soap and soda, or, instead of these, washing-powder in a small quantity of *boiling* water, after which the copper must be filled up with *cold* water enough to make it lukewarm. If the clothes were put into boiling water the marks and stains on them would become fixed, and would be very difficult to remove afterwards. Care must be taken not to boil any unbleached or coloured articles in the water with the white linen, or it will not be a good colour. The coarser articles can be boiled in the same water, but it must be *after* the white ones are taken out and more cold water added. About twenty minutes' boiling will be sufficient, during which *time* the clothes must be kept well under the water by being pressed down occasionally with a stick.

When taken out of the copper the clothes must be plunged into clear cold water for rinsing the first time. In the second rinse, a little blue must be added to improve the colour of the clothes, which will have a yellowish tinge after boiling, especially if soda has been used. In preparing the blue-rinse, it is very essential that the blue should be squeezed into the water through a thick flannel bag. If put in without this precaution the linen will be found streaked or spotted with blue after being rinsed.

Too many articles should not be put into the blue water at once, or they will be too close together for the blue to be equally distributed all over them. Plenty of water and plenty of room to allow each article to be well opened out, are very necessary to ensure good clear blue-rinsing. After rinsing, the clothes must be turned on the wrong side for drying.

The quicker the clothes are dried, the nicer they will look, and, if a clear open space be available, they will be much sweeter and clearer looking when dried out of doors in the middle of the day. Of course we need not repeat that the clothes cannot be ready for drying so soon in the day if the washing-day secret of *early rising* be not carried out. There are times when weather will not permit drying out of doors, but to see clothes drying indoors late at night when the weather has been fine, tells its own tale of *late-beginning*.

Before hanging out the clothes, the lines should be well wiped with a damp cloth. The pegs must be perfectly clean, as well as strong. Coloured articles must not be hung where the glare of the sun will be full upon them, or they will fade. They must also be turned before hanging out. This rule also applies to coloured woollen articles and stockings, which should always be dried on the wrong side. White cotton or linen garments set in bands should be hung with the bands downwards, while flannel or woollen articles set in bands must be hung with the bands pegged to the line. If hung with the bands downwards, the water would settle in the plaits or gathers and cause the flannel or woollen to shrink and become very thick round the bands.

When dry, the clothes must be taken down, *put into a* clean basket, and brought in to be *folded.* The kitchen table must be perfectly clean for the purpose of folding. If the clothes are very dry, they will need sprinkling with a little cold water before folding. Unless every article be neatly and smoothly folded, it cannot possibly look nice when mangled or ironed. After folding, the clothes should remain a few hours before mangling or ironing, so that the dampness may be imparted to the whole surface of them, and not merely where the sprinkling has reached them. If not damp all over, the mangle or iron will not make them smooth all over, but the dry portions will look creased.

Body-linen requires ironing over after mangling, in order to lay the plaits and gathers neatly and smooth out the trimmings. The irons may be used for this purpose, and the pocket-handkerchiefs, before doing the starch things, since they will be all the better for the latter after using a little time.

There are two methods of starching. One is adopted when patent starch, such as Glenfield, is used; the other, when the common starch is used. The patent starches are prepared for use with *boiling* water, and recipes will be found upon the packets containing them. The common starch is mixed with *cold* water in the proportion of two small tablespoonfuls to a quart. The articles are dipped into it one by one (stirring the starch well all the time), then rinsing them slightly in cold water; after which they must be tightly rolled in a cloth for an hour before ironing. It requires practice to starch well by this latter method, but the articles starched may be made to look very clear as well as stiff. In both cases the starch for muslins and laces must be much thinner than for shirts, collars, fronts, or cuffs.

A firm table, a thick ironing-blanket covered with a clean fine ironing-cloth, a good clear fire, three irons, very clean, and of a good heat, are all essential to good ironing.

Linen collars, cuffs, and fronts must be laid very smoothly, slightly ironed on the *wrong* side, and finished on the *right* to give them a gloss. Muslins and laces must be ironed entirely on the wrong side, since they do not require a gloss on the right. For ironing dresses and skirts it is necessary to have a board made narrower at one end and covered with flannel. This can be put inside the skirt, and a portion ironed at once. The board should be rested on trestles at each end, so that the portion of the skirt ironed may fall over the side and not get creased. Two kitchen chairs weighted down on the seats, and the board placed on the top of the backs will answer the purpose of trestles. The articles should be placed towards the fire as soon as ironed to ensure their being thoroughly dry. If the slightest dampness be left in them they will not be stiff.

The clothes which have been mangled will air round the fire while the ironing is going on, and must then be looked over to see if buttons or strings are wanted, neatly folded and put away.

All the utensils used in washing should be put away when done with, and kept clean until required again. The lines and pegs should be kept in a bag; the tubs in a cool shady place, for if kept too dry the wood will shrink and cause the tubs to leak. They should be filled with water a day or two before using, if they appear very dry. The mangle should be kept covered, and the irons dry, so as to prevent them from rusting. The clothes baskets and horses require scrubbing to keep them white and clean. Great attention should be paid to the copper. It must be well washed and left *very* dry, or it will become rusty, and so spoil the next clothes boiled in it.

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